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ABSTRACT

This manual is designed to introduce teachers to basic principles of language analysis which can be immediately applied to classrooms populated by non-English speaking or language handicapped children. Programed exercises covering major units of study are included with follow-up discussion on: (1) nature of language; (2) attitudes toward language; (3) contrast in vowel sounds; (4) consonant sounds; (5) suprasegmentals; stress, pitch, and pause; and (6) the ordered forms of words. The exercises involve the teacher in a detailed analysis of language interference problems which can be anticipated when Spanish background youngsters try to learn English. The manual is intended for use in workshops or by individuals. (RL)

ED039816

MICHIGAN ORAL LANGUAGE SERIES

Standard English as a Second Language or Second Dialect

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Developing Language Curricula: Programed Exercise for Teachers

FL 001 773

ACTFL EDITION
1970

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Michigan Migrant Primary Interdisciplinary Project

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DEVELOPING LANGUAGE CURRICULA

Programed Exercises for Teachers
(Experimental Edition)

These materials were developed by the Washtenaw Intermediate School District under a grant from the Migrant Program of the Michigan Department of Education and are the property of the State of Michigan

1969

MICHIGAN MIGRANT PRIMARY INTERDISCIPLINARY PROJECT
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Preface to the ACTFL Edition

Since its organization the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) has been interested in and concerned with the education of Americans for whom English is not the mother tongue. This interest and concern have led ACTFL to study several instructional programs in this area.

One set of materials which came to our attention is the Michigan Oral Language Series produced under the direction of Ralph Robinett and Richard Benjamin with E.S.E.A. Title I-Migrant funds provided by the Michigan Department of Education to the Washtenaw County Intermediate School District and the Foreign Language Innovative Curricula studies (E.S.E.A. Title III). The series consists of structured oral language lessons for use with four, five and six year old children who need to learn English as a second language or standard English as a second dialect; the lessons are accompanied by evaluation and teacher training materials.

The series gives the teacher a detailed sequence of oral language activities which are not only linguistically controlled but also emphasize and reinforce the conceptual development of the child.

ACTFL has made these materials available for several reasons:

1. So that you can see what one project has been able to produce with competent staff.

2. So that you will appreciate--if you do not already--what materials development means.

3. So that you can use these materials for training personnel in your institution.

4. So that you may consider adapting or adopting them--in whole or in part--for your program.

The series consists of six components:

1. Bilingual Conceptual Development Guide--Preschool
2. English Guide--Kindergarten
3. Spanish Guide--Kindergarten
4. Interdisciplinary Oral Language Guide--Primary One
5. Michigan Oral Language Productive Tests
6. Developing Language Curricula: Programed Exercises for Teachers

If you wish to order multiple or single copies of these texts please consult the catalogue published by ACTFL.

This ACTFL Project has been made possible by CONPASS (Consortium of Professional Associations for Study of Special Teacher Improvement Programs), under a grant from the U. S. Office of Education, and it is intended to extend the work of CONPASS initiated at its conference in Grove Park, North Carolina on 10-15 June 1969. ACTFL extends its appreciation to CONPASS for the grant which makes the distribution of these materials possible and to the staff of FLICS and the Migrant Worker Program for their willingness to share the fruits of their work.

F. André Paquette
Executive Secretary

PART ONE

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

1. According to the discussion of the nature of language, the three basic parts or sub-systems, of language are _____, _____, and _____.

a. stress system
b. sound system
c. structure words
d. nouns and verbs
e. vowels and consonants
f. content vocabulary
g. pitch system
h. structural system

2. According to the discussion, the sound system consists of three parts, which are the _____, _____, and _____.

a. distribution
b. vowel sounds
c. stress
d. individual sounds
e. pitch
f. pause
g. suprasegmentals
h. consonant sounds

3. According to the discussion, the structural system consists of three parts, which are the _____, _____, and _____.

a. performer
b. determiners
c. form of words
d. intensifiers
e. structure words
f. auxiliaries
g. order of forms
h. modifier

4. According to the discussion, the content vocabulary consists of four classes, which are the _____, _____, _____, and _____.

a. prepositions
b. auxiliaries
c. verbs
d. adjectives
e. articles
f. nouns
g. conjunctions
h. adverbs

5. Study the pairs of equivalent expresions below. The problems involved in the expressions deal primarily with one of the major parts, or subsystems of language. This sub-system is the _____.

the white house	la casa blanca
small houses	casas pequeñas
I will win	Ganare

a. sound system
b. structural system
c. content vocabulary

6. Study the pairs of words below. The problems involved in these pairs of words deal primarily with the _____.

Sue-zoo	leave-live	match-mash
coat-goat	cat - cut	hat-had

a. sound system
b. structural system
c. content vocabulary

7. Study the pairs of words below. The problems involved in these pairs of words deal primarily with the _____.

hurt-hurtar	college-colegio
assist-asistir	signature-asignatura

a. sound system
b. structural system
c. content vocabulary

8. Study the pairs of words below. The problems involved in these pairs of words deal primarily with the _____.

Spanish-espanol	study-estudiar	school-escuela
spirit-espíritu	state-estado	scale-escala

a. sound system
b. structural system
c. content vocabulary

9. Study the pairs of words below. The problems involved in these pairs of words deal primarily with the _____.

rather	big	shall
a	bigger	didn't

a. sound system
b. structural system
c. content vocabulary

It is important to know whether a difference in the way sounds are produced makes a difference in meaning. If a difference in meaning is signalled by a difference in pronunciation, the difference is called contrastive or distinctive. If no difference in meaning is signalled when there is a difference in pronunciation, the difference is called non-contrastive or non-distinctive.

10. The difference in the pronunciation of the vowel sound in leave and the vowel sound in live is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

11. The difference in the pronunciation of the sound represented by tch in match and the sound represented by sh in mash is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

12. The difference in the pronunciation of the sound represented by T in Tim and the sound represented by tt in mitt is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

13. The difference in pronunciation of the sound represented by th in either and the sound represented by the th in ether is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

14. The difference in pronunciation of the sound represented by the k in kill and the sound represented by the c in cool is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

15. The difference in pronunciation of the sound represented by the second c in picnic and the sound represented by ck in picnicking is _____.
    a. distinctive
    b. non-distinctive

Three important kinds of meaning teachers must be sensitive to are (1) lexical meaning, (2) structural meaning, and (3) social cultural meaning.

16. Read the sentences below. The kind of meaning being illustrated is _____.

a. lexical
b. structural
c. social-cultural

Have the boys finished?
Have the boys finish.

17. Read the paragraph below. The kind of meaning being illustrated is _____.

a. lexical
b. structural
c. social-cultural

"Bob's grandfather thinks Bob is driving too fast if he goes forty miles an hour. Bob wouldn't think he was driving too fast if he were driving seventy."

18. Read the questions below. The kind of meaning being illustrated is _____.

a. lexical
b. structural
c. social-cultural

How many springs are there in that watch?
How many springs are there in that forest?
How many springs are there in that mattress?

19. Study the pairs of words below. By each pair indicate the kind of meaning being illustrated.

a. lexical
b. structural
c. social-cultural

_____ boy; girl
_____ boy; man
_____ boy; boyish

_____ boy; boys
_____ good; bad
_____ good; better

_____ get; got
_____ walk; walked
_____ go; went

Most of us seldom give much thought to the nature of language. Language is something we use every day. There are some, of course, who must of necessity give a great deal of conscious attention to language. One such person is the teacher of language, and more especially, the teacher of a second language or the teacher of a second dialect. He must know the intricacies of at least two languages or dialects. Inasmuch as we are teachers of a second language or of a second dialect, we should begin at the beginning by asking ourselves what language is. What is language?

Language is a system. A system, we know, is an assemblage or combination of things or parts forming a complex or unitary whole. Language is a system composed of three basic parts, or sub-systems: (1) the sound system, (2) the structural system, and (3) the lexicon. The sound system consists of the units of sound and the way in which the sounds are used, and the characteristic types of intonation, stress, and pause and the way in which they are used. For example, in the Spanish sound system, there are five significant vowel sounds or units of sound. In English, depending on whose interpretation you follow, there may be twice as many significant sounds or units of sound. In the English sound system there are words beginning with the cluster st-, as in study. In the Spanish sound system this combination of sounds appears, but not at the beginning of words, for example, estudiar. We can also find difference in intonation, stress, and pause as they function in each language. Each language has a sound system, but the sound system functions differently within the total system of each language.

The second sub-system mentioned as being part of any language system is the structural system. This is the grammar of the language. The structure, or grammar, of a language consists of the forms and arrangements which signal the various types of structural meaning, such as "plural", "past", and "gender". For example, in English the -ed ending on verbs signals "past". This is the use of form to signal meaning. In the sentence The cat bit the rat, the arrangement, or the order, tells us who performed the action. This is the use of arrangement to signal meaning.

The third sub-system mentioned as being part of any language system is the lexicon. The lexicon, or the vocabulary, consists primarily of the body of content words, that is, the labels or names we use for things such as girl, tree, car, for actions such as fly, swim, walk, for qualities such as good, pretty, hungry, and for manner such as slowly, quickly, carefully.

The important features of language are matters of contrast. In the sound system certain features of sound production are used to signal differences in meaning. We might say cap /kaep^{h}/ with a slight puff of air after the /p/ or we might say /kaep/ and not release the /p/, that is, not have the slight puff of air after the /p/. On the other hand, if we vibrate our vocal cords, while pronouncing the /p/ and lengthen the preceding vowel sound, a listener would no longer react to the sound as /p/. He would probably think that the sound was a /b/, and the meaning signalled would be cab rather than cap.

In English, we can say that voicing, the vibrating of the

vocal cords, is an important signal. Voicing helps us to tell the difference between pairs of words such as pill and bill, tin and din, feel and veal. It signals a contrast that is significant. On the other hand, we saw that aspiration, the puff of air, did not make any difference in the reaction to cap. Aspiration is not very common at the end of words when compared with its frequency at the beginning of words, so we might look at another example. The /p/ sound of pan is quite different, strongly aspirated, from the /p/ sound of span, not aspirated. It happens that this contrast of aspiration versus non-aspiration is not significant in Spanish either, that is, it does not signal a difference in meaning nor does it occur in contrastive positions.

In English, speakers ignore the difference in tongue position of the /k/ sound in words such as kill, cull, and coal. In kill the back of the tongue is quite far forward. In cull the back of the tongue is further back. In coal the back of the tongue is quite far back. This tongue position is not important for English speakers, and they do not notice the difference. The difference does not signal a significant contrast. Position of the tip of the tongue is quite important, however. If we say sheep, with the tip of our tongue high, we are talking about a kind of farm animal. If we lower our tongue a little and relax it, the word we pronounce will be ship, and we will be taking about something that floats on the ocean. This difference between the vowel sound of sheep and the vowel sound of ship is not used in Spanish as a way of signalling a difference in meaning. In Spanish, it is non-contrastive. In English, it is contrastive. Each language

uses only a small part of the many possible ways of distinguishing sounds, and no two languages use the same set of distinctions in the same way.

We have already said that language is a system. We are now ready to qualify our statement. We may say that language is a system of communication. That is, the function of language is to convey experience, or meaning. The student of language deals with at least three kinds of meanings: (1) lexical meaning, (2) structural meaning, and (3) social-cultural meaning.

Lexical meaning refers to the kind of meaning a dictionary maker records for words, especially the content words - the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. If for example, we did not know the word wolf, we could, with the help of a dictionary, draw certain conclusions about it. We would find that the word wolf refers to a certain kind of wild animal belonging to the dog family, that it is swift-footed and crafty, and that it is destructive to wild game and sheep. In English, the total of the lexical meanings, as reflected through the content words, constitutes the major part of the lexicon of the language.

Structural meaning refers to the kind of meaning signalled by the features of form and arrangement. We have already mentioned this briefly in connection with our discussion of the various parts of a language system, but let us look at another example. The sentence The hungry wolves killed the prize ram tells us much more than the total of the lexical meanings of the words hungry, wolves, killed, prize, and ram. We know by the form of wolves, that is wolves as opposed to wolf, that more than one of these

predatory animals is involved in the situation. We know by the form killed that the action has already taken place. By the arrangement of the words we know that it is the wolves which are hungry and not the ram, and we know which is performer and which has undergone the action. These meanings of "plural", "past", "modifier", "performer", and "undergoer" are structural meanings. There is in English a relatively small number of words, such as the, from, with, and shall which seem to have little or no lexical meaning. These words, called structured words, together with all the features of form and arrangement which signal structural meaning, constitute the grammar of the language.

The third kind of meaning we will consider is called social-cultural meaning. Social-cultural meaning refers to the kind of meaning a whole utterance takes on when it is used in a given situation, that is, at a specific time and with specific people in a particular cultural environment. The sentence The hungry wolves killed the prize ram, might have one social-cultural meaning if it occurred in a conversation between members of an organization for the protection of wildlive, yet quite a different meaning if it occurred in a conversation between two sheep raisers. The sheep raiser would surely be affected more emotionally as well as economically. In the mind of the naturalist, the event might be a manifestation of the law of nature. In the mind of the sheep raiser, the event might represent the loss of years of hard work and saving in order to acquire the prize ram. These different backgrounds of experiences represent different social-cultural meanings for the same physical and linguistic event. The

experiences people have as individuals and the experiences they have collectively, as a family, club, or society or cultural group, create social-cultural meanings.

We are now ready to further elaborate on our explanation of the nature of language. We have said that language is a system of communication. We may qualify the statement further by saying that language is a system of arbitrary symbols. For example in English-speaking countries, a certain kind of quadruped is called a horse. The same animal, if taken to Peru, would be called a caballo, or in France a cheval, or in Germany, a Pferd.

Still another way to illustrate the arbitrary and symbolic nature of language is to look at a language historically. For example, in Old English the length of the vowel sound constituted a significant difference between sounds, such as in faet meaning vat or cup and faet meaning goldplate. Today in English there is a difference in vowel length in pairs of words like neat and need, ice and eyes, cap and cab, but English speakers do not react to this difference alone because it is no longer a part of the system for distinguishing significant sound units.

Likewise, the structural system of English has radically changed. In Modern English we rely heavily on word order. In Old English the word order was usually less important and the main structural meanings were carried by the forms of the words alone.

Looking at the history of a word will also tell us that a particular word did not always have the same meaning. Earlier in the history of English, meat referred to any kind of food, as in the expression meat and drink, whereas now meat refers generally

to the flesh of animals.

Thus far we have described language as an arbitrary and symbolic system of communication. We may further qualify our statement by saying that language is an oral event. That is, speech is the language, whereas writing is a graphic representation of speech. Our writing in both English and Spanish fails to represent all of the features of the two languages, especially in the sound system, in which intonation, pause, and stress are at best imperfectly recorded. There are still many languages in the world today, quite complex languages, which do not have a writing system. In the areas where these languages are spoken, the languages are handed down orally from generation to generation, as languages undoubtedly were in the unnumbered years and generation before writings were invented. Even in the United States, there are large numbers of people who cannot read and write. Yet we would not insist that these illiterates are without a language.

We have, perhaps, progressed far enough in our attempt to tell what language is. Basically: language is an oral system of arbitrary symbols used for communication among human beings.

PART TWO

ATTITUDES TOWARD LANGUAGE

In Mark Twain's Huckleberry Finn, Huck and Jim get into a conversation about language. Read the selection below and answer the questions which follow it.

"Huck, do de French people talk de same way we does?"
"No, Jim, you couldn't understand a word they said...S'pose a man was to come to you and say Polly-voo-franzy - what would you think?"
"I wouldn' think nuffin, I'd take en bust him over the head..."
"Shucks... It's only saying, do you know how to talk French?"
"Well, den, why couldn't he say it?"
"Why, he is a-saying it. That's a Frenchman's way of saying it... Does a cat talk like a cow, or a cow talk like a cat?"
"No, dey don't."
"It's natural and right for 'em to talk different from each other ain't it?"
"Course."
"And ain't it natural and right for a cat and a cow to talk different from us?"
"Why, mos' sholy it is."
"Well, then, why ain't it natural and right for a Frenchman to talk different from us? You answer me that."
"Is a cat a man, Huck?"
"No."
"Well, den, dey ain't no sense in a cat talkin' like a man. Is a cow a man? -er is a cow a cat?"
"No, she ain't either of them."
"Well, den, she ain't got no business to talk like either one er the yuther of 'em. Is a Frenchman a man?"
"Yes."
"Well, den! Dad blame it, why doan' he talk like a man....."

20. From the selection above we may conclude that Jim believed _____.

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some languages are better than others.

21. From the selection above we may conclude that Huck believed _____

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some languages are better than others.

Read the following quotations:

"The Spanish spoken in Colombia is the best Spanish spoken in the New World because it is most like the Spanish spoken in Spain."

"The Spanish spoken in Panama, Puerto Rico, and Texas is the worst Spanish spoken in the New World because of the strong influence of American culture."

22. From the quotations above we may conclude that the speaker wanted us to believe that _____.

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some dialects are better than others.

Studies in linguistic geography show that in telling time in Maine it is common to use to as in a quarter to eleven; in West Virginia it is common to use till as in a quarter till eleven, and in New Jersey it is common to use to or of as in a quarter to eleven.

23. From the finding above we might conclude that _____.

a. There is a right way and wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some dialects are better than others.

For many years Boston was considered to be the "cultural center" of the United States. In Boston the word aunt is pronounced by many with a vowel sound somewhat similar to the vowel sound of hot. In certain other areas of the country the word aunt is pronounced with a vowel sound similar to the vowel sound of hat.

24. The fact that many Bostonians pronounce words like aunt differently from midwest farmers shows us that _____.

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some dialects are better than others.

Read the following passage from Harper Lee's To Kill a Mockingbird.

"That's why you don't talk like the rest of 'em," said Jem.
"The rest of who?"
"Rest of the colored folks. Cal, but you talked like they did in church...."
That Calpurnia led a modest double life never dawned on me. The idea that she had a separate existence outside our household was a novel one, to say nothing of her having command of two languages.
"Cal," I asked, "why do you talk nigger-talk to the - to your folks when you know it's not right?"
"Well, in the first place I'm black -"
"That doesn't mean you hafta talk that way when you know better," said Jem.
Calpurnia tilted her hat and scratched her head, then pressed her hat down carefully over her ears. "It's right hard to say," she said. "Suppose you and Scout talked colored-folks' talk at home- it'd be out of place, wouldn't it? Now what if I talked white-folks' talk at church, and with my neighbors? They'd think I was puttin' on airs to beat Moses."
"But Cal, you know better," I said.
"It's not necessary to tell all you know. It's not lady-like - in the second place, folks don't like to have somebody around knowin' more than they do. It aggravates 'em. You're not gonna change any of them by talkin' right, they've got to want to learn themselves, and when they don't want to learn there's nothing you can do but keep your mouth shut or talk their language."

25. From the excerpt above we may conclude that Jem believed _____.

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some dialects are better than others.

26. From the excerpt above we may conclude that Calpurnia believed _____.

a. There is a right way to talk and a wrong way to talk.
b. People in different places talk in different ways.
c. Some dialects are better than others.

Study the sentences below.

900: Faeder ure thu the eart on heofenum, si thin name gehalgod.
1300: Fader oure thet art ine hevenes, yhalyed bi thi name.
1600: Our father, which art in heaven, hallowed be thy name.
1958: Our Heavenly Father, may your name be honored.

27. From the sentences above we might conclude that _____.

a. Language standards can be set up and fixed.
b. Language standards can vary with place.
c. Language standards can vary with time.

What we called horse might be called caballo in Spain, cheval in France, and Pferd in Germany. With this information we might conclude that _____.

a. Language habits can be set up and fixed.
b. Language habits can vary with place.
c. Language habits can vary with time.

Study the conversation below.

Speaker 1: Dear me! Be careful.
Speaker 2: Yes. Let's not be hasty.
Speaker 3: Cool it.

29. The name of the first speaker is probably _____.

a. William b. Agatha c. Willie

30. The name of the second speaker is probably _____.

a. William b. Agatha c. Willie

31. The name of the third speaker is probably _____.

a. William b. Agatha c. Willie

32. The conversation above 29 reflects linguistic implications in the _____.

a. Speech differences in the Generation Gap.
b. Speech differences in the Cumberland Gap.
c. Speech differences in age and sex.

Read the quotations below.

a. "Language should be reduced to rules, and standards of correct usage should be set up."

b. "Language should be refined, that is, defects disposed of and refinements made."

c. "Once the desired form is developed, language should be fixed permanently."

d. "Language should be studied, and standards of usage should be based on the situations in which language is actually used."

33. Linguistically speaking, the "good guys" are sympathetic to a descriptive approach, as in quotation _____ above. The "bad guys" are still inclined toward an arbitrarily prescriptive approach, as in quotations _____, _____, and _____.

34. Which of the following would you teach your students to use for his ordinary communication needs in English? Be prepared to give reasons for each choice.

a. I'm not going.
I ain't going.

b. Who did you go with?
With whom did you go?

c. It is I.
It is me.

d. He don't care.
He doesn't care.

e. You were mistaken.
You was mistaken.

f. He loaned me a dollar.
He lent me a dollar.

In Mark Twain's Huckleberry Finn, there is a chapter called "Was Solomon Wise?", in which Huck and Jim get into a conversation about language. Huck has been explaining to Jim about the French Revolution and how the story is told that the Dauphin, the heir to the French throne, was secretly brought to America. Huck goes on to explain that the Dauphin might make a living by teaching French. Here is where we pick up their conversation....

"Why, Huck, doan' de French people talk de same way we does?"
"No, Jim, you couldn't understand a word they said - not a single word."
"Well, now, I be ding-busted! How do dat come?"
"I don't know, but it's so. I got some of their jabber out of a book. S'pose a man was to come to you and say Polly-voo-franzy - what would you think?"
"I wouldn' think nuffin, I'd take en bust him over de head. I wouldn't 'low nobody to call me dat."
"Shucks, it ain't calling you anything. It's only saying, do you know how to talk French?"
"Well, den, why couldn't he say it?"
"Why, he is a-saying it. That's a Frenchman's way of saying it."
"Well, it's a blame 'ridicklous way, en I doan' want to hear no mo' 'bout it. Dey ain' no sense in it."
"Looky here, Jim, does a cat talk like we do?"
"No, a cat don't."
"Well, does a cow?"
"No, a cow don't nuther."
"Does a cat talk like a cow, or a cow talk like a cat?"
"No, dey don't."
"It's natural and right for 'em to talk different from each other, ain't it?"
"Course."
"And ain't it natural and right for a cat and a cow to talk different from us?"
"Why, mos' sholy it is."
"Well, then, why ain't it natural and right for a Frenchman to talk different from us? You answer me that."
"Is a cat a man, Huck?"
"No."
"Well, den, dey ain't no sense in a cat talkin' like a man. Is a cow a man? -er is a cow a cat?"
"No, she ain't either of them."
"Well, den she ain't got no business to talk like either one er yuther of 'em. Is a Frenchman a man?"
"Yes."
"Well, den! Dad blame it, why doan' he talk like a man. You answer me dat!"

You can see that Jim's problem was that he could not imagine why a Frenchman, or any other kind of person, would talk any language other than English. For him, language was English. He held the view that what he used as language was right

and what other people used was wrong if it differed. This leads us into a consideration of various attitudes toward language and language usage.

We have already dealt to some extent with attitudes toward language. We made the statement that language is arbitrary. We also saw that the same physical phenomenon is labelled differently in different languages. We might look at other examples to see that within the same language we find the same thing labelled differently. If you were from West Virginia, you would tend to say "a quarter till eleven" when indicating that time of day. If you were from Maine, you might be more inclined to say "a quarter to eleven." These expressions are used by educated speakers of English. They simple reflect geographical differences in the language. One is not intrinsically "better" than the other.

We also noted earlier that the meanings of words change and the ways of expressing grammatical relationships also change with time. For example:

900: Faeder ure thy the eart on heofenum, si thin nama gehalgod.
1300: Fader oure thet art ine hevenes, yhalved bi thi name.
1600: Our father, which art in heaven, hallowed be thy name.
1958: Our Heavenly Father, may your name be honored.

In these examples from English, it is easy to see how the language has changed, especially the word order. Notice also the difference in the form of the words.

What has this to do with attitudes toward languages? The connection is simply this: languages have always changed, and probably always will. Recognizing this, we should take this fact into account when we are framing our attitude toward language. English has radically changed in the last 1000 years. To be sure, there has been no Academy to tell English speakers what they ought to say. On the other hand, there have been attempts, no more or less effective than an Academy, to dictate what English should be. These efforts to tell people what to say have had relatively little effect on the language as far as we can observe. In considering the problems of English usage, we must examine

the various sources which have carried on the work of an Academy. And for an understanding of these sources we must turn back to the seventeenth century in England, and even earlier, to a history-long conflict between what is generally labelled Romanticism and Classicism.

For as long as we have records of man's attitude toward himself and toward the society in which he lives, we have evidence of the conflict in man's basic tendencies to be individualistic on one hand and yet to strive for conformity on the other. Those periods in history when the major emphasis of society seemed to be on free expression of the individual are called romantic periods. Those periods in history when the emphasis seemed to be on conformity to standards established by tradition are called classical periods. It so happened that in Elizabethan England, and for some time after, writers such as Shakespeare invented words freely and borrowed many more. There was no academy, and few people seem to have worried whether what one said was right or wrong linguistically. They talked and wrote, and were apparently understood. By the time we reach the Augustan Age in England, that is, the first half of the eighteenth century, we find that England has begun to wonder and even worry about the correctness of what it does. This was one of England's classical periods. It was concerned with a sense of order and a desire for system and regularity. This general feeling of seeking regulation was in part supported by and in part created by the scientific rationalism which was also developing at that time. People were beginning to feel that everything in their lives could be explained and justified. This general cultural attitude quite naturally reflected itself in the attitude toward language, and the results were the views that:

1. Language should be reduced to rules, and standards of correct usage should be set up.

2. Language should be refined, that is, defects disposed of and refinements made.

3. Once the desired form is developed, language should be fixed permanently.

Along with this philosophy of language, there was the general view that English was a corrupt and degenerate form of Latin and Greek. The eighteenth century approach to English was, then, one which tended to ignore actual usage as a basis for correctness. Out of this movement came a number of grammars of English which attempted to explain English in terms of Latin grammar and to revise English on the Latin model. These Latinate English grammars were widely copied and even today still wield considerable influence among traditionally minded teachers of English as well as editors of newspapers and publishers of books.

Attempts were made to establish an English Academy along the lines of the Italian Academy founded in 1582 and the French Academy founded in 1635, but they were unsuccessful. As a result, English-speaking people turned to the authority of the Latinate grammars and even more commonly, to the dictionaries, such as Johnson's, with which he had set himself up as a dictator of the English language.

Not everyone in a society is classical any more than they are all romantic. At the same time this general effort to systematize and fix English was going on, there were scholars who insisted that English was English and not Latin, and that the authority sought must be found by a study of the language as it was actually used. This latter group was greatly encouraged by the advancement of the scientific method and as time went by came to overshadow the earlier authorities. The battle is still not completely won, but there are relatively few authorities on English today who insist on Latin logic or artificial standards in the face of actual usage.

We may conclude from our consideration of standards of usage that there are two major views: one we might call arbitrarily prescriptive, with its basis in

analogy with Latin, in logic, and in personal opinion; the other we might call descriptive, with its basis in actual usage of "standard" authors, in formal literary writing or speech, or in the colloquial speech of educated users of the language. The first of these two major views, the prescriptive approach, is a corpse that, if not already buried, is at least on its way to the cemetery. The second of these two major views, the descriptive approach, is still young and vigorous, but has not yet fully made up its mind which way it wants to go. If we accept, as most students of English now do, that our standard of correctness is actual usage, we must ask ourselves yet another question - whose usage?

There are at least four different levels of usage: the non-standard level, the informal standard level, the formal standard level, and the literary level. Using these categories and turning back to the excerpt from Huckleberry Finn, we find that the speech of Jim is clearly of the non-standard level. Huck, on the other hand, has fewer non-standard forms, and is closer to informal standard. The level of usage our students are most apt to hear in their classes would be informal standard English, although they will sometimes hear formal standard English from their teachers. They might, hear both formal and informal standard English from them, and occasionally non-standard forms. In teaching and speaking, we have to decide what level of usage we wish to employ, and then classify questionable items so that we can make a decision as to what to do with them.

We should begin now to draw some conclusions about what level of usage we would seek to imitate. Most of us would probably agree that we do not wish to teach or speak the language of the non-standard level. But before we discount this level entirely, we might consider a story told by Robert A. Hall, Jr. It seems that a friend of his went to work in a Texas shipyard during the

Second World War. This friend was what we might call a speaker of standard English, and in his speech it was common to say those things, and not them things, which is characteristic of the non-standard level. Because Hall's friend said those things rather than them things, as his fellow workers did, they thought he was a snob and refused to cooperate with him. It was only after he had learned to say them things, that he was able to get full cooperation from his fellow workers. If the primary function of language is communication, and as a result, human cooperation, we cannot ignore the fact that on certain occasions what we think of as the non-standard level of usage does have value. In English we use the expression "He talks my language", which generally has the meaning that the person referred to has much in common with the speaker, that they can understand each other's behavior and motives. This expression taken on the literary level, that is, that two people do use the same linguistic forms, has great significance. It points up the fact that differences in language usage attract attention to the forms of the language and away from the linguistic and social-cultural meanings being conveyed. For our normal communication purposes, the more our attention is diverted to the forms and away from the meaning, the less effective will be our attempts to elicit cooperation from others.

The efforts of English teachers to develop in their students a certain level of proficiency in language is not so much motivated by the teachers' desire for perfection as it is a desire to make their students' speech one which attracts attention to what the students are trying to say rather than how they say it. Teachers may not be able to make their students talk like standard speakers of English at all times, but they can hope for a sensitivity to the appropriateness of dialect for the situation at hand, so the listener will give his full attention to what is being said.

One goal for our students, then, is to develop a new set of language habits characteristic of standard English which they can put to use on demand.

Coming back now to our discussion of levels of usage, we might recognize with Professor Hall a certain value in being aware of the non-standard level forms, and in some cases being able to shift dialects if the occasion demands. The literary level has a place and a function as one level of language usage. If, however, our aim is communication for the purpose of social cooperation, we must recognize that "high-brow" usage can elicit negative attitudes just as well as "low-brow" usage.

Through a process of elimination, we have arrived at what might be called standard English, with its two forms, informal and formal. Once more, if our aim in language is to communicate to gain cooperation, we may conclude that what has here been defined as standard English should be the basis of acceptability. It is the English used, as Charles C. Fries has said, by those who carry on the major affairs of the country. In a society such as ours, where everyone can aspire to become one of those who helps to carry on the major affairs of the country, we teachers have the responsibility of providing our students a standard of usage which will enable them to communicate effectively at the level of their aspiration. We should, then, use as a basis for acceptability standards which take into account the range of variation in language and the communicative implications of those variations.

PART THREE

THE VOWEL SOUNDS

THE ENGLISH VOWEL SOUNDS

beat		pool
bit		pull
bait	but	
bet		coat
bat		caught
	cot	

THE SPANISH VOWEL SOUNDS

ti		tu
le		lo
	la	

A teacher of Spanish-speaking children who are learning English sometimes confuses problems of spelling with problems of sound production. She may forget, for example, that slipped and slept have the same number of sounds, and that the only difference in pronunciation is in the vowel sound. How many sounds does each of the following words have?

35.	_____	in	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	_____	sin	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	_____	sing	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	_____	singe	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	_____	shin	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	_____	tin	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	_____	thin	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	_____	thing	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	_____	think	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	_____	junk	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	_____	chuck	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	_____	etch	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	_____	edge	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	_____	edged	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	_____	etched	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	_____	go	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	_____	though	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	_____	threw	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	_____	through	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	_____	thought	2	3	4	5	6	7

A Spanish-speaking child learning English usually has difficulty in hearing and producing the difference between the words sheep and ship. The difference in pronunciation lies in the vowel sounds. English has two high front vowel sounds, while Spanish has only one. Another pair of words that embodies the same problem is:

55. _____

a. shin - chin
b. sheep - cheap
c. seat - sit

Some other typical problems in hearing and producing vowel contrasts are reflected in the pairs of words on the left. Match the problems illustrated in the pairs of words on the right with those on the left.

56. sit
set _____

57. bet
bat _____

58. hat
hot _____

59. cot
cut _____

60. but
bought _____

61. pool
pull _____

a. rob - rub
b. slipped - slept
c. Luke - look
d. sung - song
e. pet - pat
f. gnat - knot

A Spanish speaking child learning to read in English will sometimes "misread" a word because his Spanish system of vowel sounds causes him to "mispronounce" or because it causes us to misinterpret what he reads.

We might interpret his reading of sick as:

62. seek sake sack suck sock soak

We might interpret his reading of sack as:

63. seek sick sake suck sock soak

We might interpret his reading of wick as:

64. week wake whack walk woke

We might interpret his reading of whack as:

65. week wick wake walk woke

We might interpret his reading of walk as:

66. week wick wake whack woke

We might interpret his reading of woke as:

67. week wick wake whack walk

We might interpret his reading of list as:

68. least laced lest last lust lost

We might interpret his reading of laced as:

69. least list lest last lust lost

We might interpret his reading of lest as:

70. least list laced last lust lost

We might interpret his reading of lost as:

71. least list laced lest last lust

A child learning to read, faced with many different patterns of sound-symbol correspondence in English, sometimes focuses so much attention on the "irregularities" of English spelling that he does not grasp the major patterns in our spelling system. In each pair of words below, which word had the vowel letter or letters which are more frequently associated with the vowel sound in that word?

When the English tongue we speak	72.	when	we
Why is "break" not rhymed with "freak"?	73.	break	freak
Will you tell me why it's true	74.	you	true
We say "sew", but likewise "few";	75.	sew	few
And the maker of a verse	76.	verse	worse
Cannot cap his "horse" with "worse"?	77.	horse	worse
And since "pay" is rhymed with "say",			
Why not "paid" with "said" I pray?	78.	paid	said
We have "blood" and "food" and "good";	79.	blood	food
"Mould" is not pronounced like "could".	80.	mould	could
Wherefore "done", but "gone" and "lone"?	81.	done	lone
Is there any reason known?	82.	known	gone
And, in short, it seems to me			
Sounds and letters disagree.	83.	me	disagree

There are in any language many more sounds than the speakers of that language commonly recognize. In Spanish, for example, there are two different /d/ sounds, as in the word dedo. The first /d/ sound in dedo is pronounced with the tongue touching the back of the upper teeth. The second /d/ sound in dedo is pronounced with the tongue between the teeth, and is similar to the sound represented by th in the English word they. In spite of having two different /d/ sounds in Spanish, Spanish speakers do not normally realize that they are using two different /d/ sounds because these two sounds never come in contrast with each other. Where the first sound occurs, the second does not. Where the second occurs, the first does not. These two sounds function together as a unit in the language, and this distinctive unit is called a phoneme. In English we have both of the sounds mentioned above, with minor variations. The English /d/ as in day is pronounced with the tongue a little further back from the teeth than the similar sound in Spanish. In English, the second sound, as represented by th in they, does come into contrast with /d/, that is, it occurs in the same positions in words, and English speakers use this difference to distinguish meaning, as for example day versus they, there versus dare, and those versus doze. In English, instead of these two sounds functioning as a single unit, as one phoneme, they function as two distinct phonemes. They are each distinctive sound units in English, while in Spanish they are non-distinctive sounds. These differences between the way sounds function as distinctive sounds, or phonemes,

and the way they function as non-distinctive sounds, or allophones, are a primary source of difficulty for the speakers of Spanish as they learn English.

It seems advisable at this point to insert a caution, reminding ourselves that here we will be talking primarily about the sounds and the ways they occur in the language. We will not ordinarily be concerned with the letters of the regular alphabet. The sounds are units in the language itself, and letters are simply ways of representing the sounds.

When we concern ourselves with the sound units that we are going to teach, we must be aware of the problems they will present to the learner. These problems arise basically from the differences between the English sound system and the Spanish sound system. By comparing the two systems, we can anticipate what the learner's problems will be. The two vowel charts following are schematic representations of the vowel sounds of English and the vowel sounds of Spanish. The charts are not intended to show actual points of articulation. The squares in each vowel chart suggest the relative positions and ranges of the sounds in each language. We may see, then, in Spanish there is only one high front vowel while in English there are two. Thus the range of a Spanish speaker's high front vowel sound covers the range of both English vowel sounds. A native speaker of Spanish might pronounce a word like <u>civico</u> and in doing so articulate more than one type of Spanish /i/. Such a distinction for him would be non-phonemic. A

native speaker of English, on the other hand, might pronounce a word like seating and use vowels very similar to those in Spanish civico. The English speaker would be using two different contrastive phonemes, as in words like seat and sit. A Spanish speaker who is learning English, then may be expected to have difficulty in distinguishing the English sounds in words like beat and bit because his own Spanish sound /i/ covers the range of both high front English vowels.

English vowel sounds

beat		pool
bit		pull
bait	but	
bet		coat
bat		caught
	cot	

Spanish vowel sounds

ti		tu
se		so
	da	

Other points of difficulty we can expect as a result of comparing the vowel systems of the two languages are as follows:

The vowel sounds in bait and bet

This contrast does not present as much difficulty on the recognition level because of the diphthongal quality of English /e/ as in bait. Production is more of a problem until the Spanish speaker learns to give English /e/ its diphthongal quality.

The vowel sounds in bit and bet

The vowel sound in English bit is relatively low, bordering on Spanish /e/, thus the Spanish speaker may interpret English bit as being like English bet. Conversely, Spanish /e/ may range fairly high and be interpreted by English speakers as the vowel of English bit.

The vowel sounds in bat and bet

The vowel in English bat is low and forward. As Spanish speakers try to produce the vowel sound in bat, they often raise it so English speakers confuse it with the vowel sound in bet, or they produce it further back in the mouth so English speakers confuse it with the /a/ sound as in hot. In producing the vowel sound in bet, Spanish speakers may lower it to such an extent that English speakers hear it as the vowel sound in hat.

The vowel sounds in hat and hot

The Spanish speaker may produce the vowel sound in hut in such a way that it is heard by English speakers as the vowel sound in hot, and the Spanish speaker may hear an English speaker's pronunciation of hut as it it were hot.

The vowel sounds in cat, cot, cut

Neither the vowel sound of hut nor the vowel sound of hat exist in Spanish as a separate phoneme, though both may occur as allophones of sounds which do exist in Spanish. The Spanish speaker's attempt to produce the vowel sound of gnat, as we have noted, may be interpreted as either the vowel sound of English net or English not. Likewise, the Spanish speaker may hear an English speaker's gnat as either net or not, depending on the quality of the vowel in the dialect of that particular speaker of English. The Spanish speaker's attempt to produce the vowel sound of cut may be heard by an English speaker as the vowel sound of cot, the vowel sound of caught, or even the vowel sound of put. Three-way contrasts are frequently useful in providing practice when multi-directional problems are involved.

The vowel sounds in cot and caught

This is not a common problem as far as production is concerned. Both of these vowels are low in English, while in Spanish there is only one low vowel, which is /a/. In some dialects of American English, the vowel sound of caught tends to be

fronted and has little lip rounding. The Spanish speaker may as a result sometimes confuse English caught with English cot.

The vowel sounds in but and bought

The basic problem here is that Spanish speakers tend to both hear and produce the vowel sound of but as the vowel sound of bought. The English speaker, in turn, will hear the Spanish speaker's pronunciation of but as bought, or as indicated above, he may hear it as box or books.

The vowel sounds in bought and boat

On the recognition level there seems to be relatively little difficulty with these sound units for the Spanish speaker. The Spanish speaker, when producing the vowel sound of boat, commonly fails to give it the diphthongal quality it has in English, and native speakers of English react to the sound as if it were the vowel sound of bought. English speakers, for example, often have difficulty in distinguishing between loan and lawn as pronounced by Spanish speakers.

The vowel sounds in pool and pull

Spanish speakers when pronouncing their high back vowel sound may on occasion have a vowel sound as in English pool or they may make it somewhat lower, more like the English vowel in pull. English speakers are often at a loss to determine which of the sounds the Spanish speaker has pronounced when he is speaking English. If the sound has been quite high, it is interpreted as the nearest English sound, as in pool. If the sound has been somewhat lower it is interpreted as English pull. Diphthongization does not play as important a role with these sounds, so the problem of recognizing a distinction between the vowel sounds of English pool and pull is as great a problem as is the production of the sounds. Even after the Spanish speaker has mastered the production of these two sounds, there is still confusion on occasion due to the oo spelling, which is common to both sounds, as for example, food, loot, boot with the higher sound, and book, look, took with the lower sound.

The vowel sounds in <u>putt</u> and <u>put</u>

As we have noted earlier, the mid central vowel as in <u>putt</u> may be interpreted variously within the five vowel system of Spanish. One of these interpretations on the part of Spanish speakers is the vowel sound of <u>put</u>. Just as the Spanish speaker hears <u>putt</u> as <u>put</u>, he also tries to produce <u>putt</u> with a high back vowel, and the English speaker then reacts as if it were <u>put</u>.

PART FOUR

THE CONSONANT SOUNDS

THE ENGLISH CONSONANT SOUNDS

General Type	Point of articulation						
	Bi-labials	Labio-dentals	Inter-dental	Alveolars	Alveo-Palatals	Velars	Glottals
Stops & Affricates vl.	p			t	č	k	
Stops & Affricates vd.	b			d	ǰ	g	
Fricatives vl.		f	θ	s	š		h
Fricatives vd.		v	ð	z	ž		
Nasals vd.	m			n		ŋ	
Lateral vd.				l			
Semivowels	front: y		central: r		back: w		

THE SPANISH CONSONANT SOUNDS

General type			(dental)		(palatal)		
Stops & vl. Affricates	p		t		č	k	
Stops & vd. Fricatives	b		d		y	g	
Fricatives vl.		f		s			h
Nasals vd.	m			n	ñ		
Lateral vd.				l			
Trill vd.				r̃			
Flap vd.				r			

The -s endings for plural, third person, and possessive have three different pronunciations: /s/, /z/, and /ɪz/. In the blanks, write the symbols to indicate how the -s ending of each item is pronounced.

Use /s/, /z/, or /ɪz/.

	Final Sound	Word	Ending
84.	/d/	need	_____
85.	/f/	stuff	_____
86.	/g/	dog	_____
87.	/k/	book	_____
88.	/m/	comb	_____
89.	/n/	pin	_____
90	/p/	drop	_____
91.	/s/	miss	_____
92.	/t/	want	_____
93.	/z/	raise	_____
94.	/θ/	sheath	_____
95.	/ð/	breathe	_____
96.	/š/	wash	_____
97.	/č/	watch	_____
98.	/ǰ/	change	_____

The -ed ending for past tense has three different pronunciations: /t/, /d/, and /ɪd/. In the blanks, write the symbols to indicate how the -ed ending of each item is pronounced.

Use /t/, /d/, or /ɪd/.

	Final Sound	Word	Ending
99.	/b/	rub	_____
100.	/d/	need	_____
101.	/f/	stuff	_____
102.	/k/	book	_____
103.	/l/	mail	_____
104.	/n/	pin	_____
105.	/p/	drop	_____
106.	/r/	store	_____
107.	/s/	miss	_____
108.	/t/	want	_____
109.	/v/	love	_____
110.	/ŋ/	bang	_____
111.	/š/	wash	_____
112.	/č/	watch	_____
113.	/ǰ/	change	_____

A Spanish-speaking child learning English usually has difficulty hearing and producing the difference between the words then and den. The difference in pronunciation lies in the initial consonant sounds. This same problem can occur in the middle or at the end of a word. Another pair of words that embodies the same problem is:

114. _____

a. either - ether
b. laid - lathe
c. bad - bath

Some other typical problems in hearing and producing consonant contrasts are reflected in the pairs of words on the left. Match the problems illustrated in the pairs of words on the right with those on the left.

115. sue _____
zoo

116. chain _____
Jane

117. yellow _____
jello

118. boat _____
vote

119. thing _____
sing

120. choose _____
shoes

a. etch - edge
b. cupboard - covered
c. hiss - his
d. catch - cash
e. Yale - jail
f. bass - bath

Even when sounds occur in both Spanish and English, a Spanish-speaking child learning English will have difficulty pronouncing some words because of the order in which the sounds occur. Let's try to put ourselves in his place. Which of the following "words" is easiest for English speakers to say?

121. _____

a. ngitr
b. ngtri
c. tring

One of the words is easier for English speakers to pronounce because:

122. _____

a. The sounds are all sounds we use in some English words.
b. The sounds occur in the same order as we use in some English words.
c. The sounds are represented by English letters, so the silent letters do not confuse us.

In English we find the combination /st/ in words like star and east. In Spanish we find the combination /st/ in words like estrella and este. The words star and east are hard for Spanish-speaking children to pronounce because:

123. _____

a. The two parts of the /st/ combination in Spanish are not in the same syllable (es-trella, es-te).
b. The /st/ combination in Spanish is always preceded and followed by a vowel sound.
c. The words star and east are so much like estrella and este in pronunciation and meaning that the Spanish-speaking child gets the two languages mixed up.

For the Spanish-speaking child learning English, the combinations /sp/ and /sk/ present the same type of difficulty as /st/. The word in each group below that would be hardest for him to pronounce as far as consonants are concerned is:

124.	_____	a.	misplace	b.	spin	c. desperate
125.	_____	a.	ask	b.	risky	c. basket
126.	_____	a.	wasp	b.	cuspid	c. Hispanic
127.	_____	a.	frisky	b.	casket	c. school

In Spanish, there are only a few consonant sounds which occur at the end of words. Examples are hablan, hablas, hablar, verdad and platanal. There are a few more in borrowed words, as in album, ballet, club, and coñac. Combinations of consonants, such as /nd/ in land and /gd/ in tagged, do not occur at the end of words in Spanish as they do in English. In each set below which word would present the biggest problem as far as final consonant combinations are concerned?

128.	_____	a.	plan	b.	planning	c. planned
129.	_____	a.	live	b.	lived	c. life
130.	_____	a.	wart	b.	worry	c. worried
131.	_____	a.	bought	b.	bog	c. box
132.	_____	a.	pullet	b.	pull	c. pulled
133.	_____	a.	sing	b.	sink	c. sinking

A Spanish speaking child learning to read in English will sometimes "misread" a word because his Spanish system of consonant sounds causes him to "mispronounce" or because it causes us to misinterpret what he reads.

We might interpret his reading of yellow as:

134. bellow jello fellow

We might interpret his reading of thing as:

135. thin wing king

We might interpret his reading of dog as:

136. duck dot doll

We might interpret his reading of joking as:

137. poking choking smoking

We might interpret his reading of shoes as:

138. zoos Sue's choose

We might interpret his reading of dime as:

139. time chime lime

We might interpret his reading of zinc as:

140. kink think sink

We might interpret his reading fodder as:

141. father farther farmer

We might interpret his reading of thumb as:

142. dumb sum chum

We might interpret his reading of have as:

143. calf half has

We might interpret his reading of votes as:

144. boats coats notes

We might interpret his reading of ban as:

145. tan can pan

We have talked thus far about the major contrasts between the English and the Spanish vowel systems. A student who has mastered the problems presented above has come a long way on the road to "native-like" English sounds. One other feature of the English vowel system which the Spanish speaker must eventually deal with if he wishes to minimize his accent is the lengthening of vowels in certain distributions. Vowel length in English is closely associated with voicing of consonants.

Voicing is the vibration of the vocal cords as the air passes through the larynx. If there is strong vibration as the air passes through the larynx, the sound is called a voiced sound. If there is no vibration of the vocal cords as the air passes through the larynx, the sound is called a voiceless sound. You can test your own pronunciation of sounds to see if they are voiced or voiceless. Put your fingers on your larynx as you pronounce s-s-s-s-s-s- and z-z-z-z-z-z. As you pronounce the /s/ sound there is no vibration. As you pronounce the /z/ sound you can feel the vibration of the vocal cords. When you feel this vibration, you know that the sound is voiced. A similar test of voicing is to put your hands over your ears as you pronounce the two sounds. As you pronounce the voiceless sound, the vibration is not audible. As you pronounce the voiced sound, the vibration is like a roar in your head. The voiceless-voiced contrast in English is an important one -- first because we use it to distinguish pairs of words that are otherwise similar, second, because it determines which pronun-

ciation of the s endings and ed ending we will use on a particular, and third, as mentioned earlier, it determines the length of the vowel sound which precedes the voiceless or coiced consonant.

The various s endings in English, the s ending for third person singular on verbs, the s ending for plural on nouns, and the s ending for genitive, have three different pronunications. These different pronunications are determined by the type of consonant sound at the end of the simple form. The ending may be pronounced /s/, /z/, or as a separate syllable. Once we know the "rule", that is, the statement of how the pronunication is determined, we can apply it to countless new words as we learn them.

If the simple form of a word ends in a sibilant sound, we add a separate syllable.

Examples: dress-dresses

church-churches

If the simple form of a word ends in a voiceless sound that is not a sibilant, we add /s/.

Examples: hat-hats

walk-walks

If the simple form of a word ends in a voiced sound that is not a sibilant, we add /z/.

Examples: dig-digs

car-cars

The pronunication of the ed ending, as we noted above, is also determined by the matter of voicing. There are three different pronunciations of the ed ending. They are /t/, /d/, and a separate syllable.

If the simple form of a word ends in a /t/ sound or a /d/ sound, we add the separate syllable.

Examples: want-wanted

need-needed

If the simple form of a word ends in a voiceless sound other than /t/, we add the ending /t/.

Examples: walk-walked

help-helped

If the simple form of a word ends in a voiced sound other than a /d/, we add the ending /d/.

Examples: live-lived

learn-learned

Vowel length in American English is generally considered not to be a distinctive sound feature. However, in words such as neat and need, the voicing contrast is not so obvious as it is at the beginning of words. In words such as neat and need, native speakers of English react to two signals, one being voicing and the other being vowel length. A student, then, who is having difficulty in producing a clear distinction between such words should be encouraged to lengthen the vowel sound before a voiced consonant, as in need, and keep the vowel sound relatively short before a voiceless consonant, as in neat.

Having dealt with the classification of English consonants and the way in which they affect the pronunciation of the s endings and the ed ending, we may now turn our attention to specific consonants which can be expected to cause problems for a native speaker of Spanish in his learning of English. Consonant contrasts which have proven particularly troublesome are the following:

The initial consonants in think and sink

The sound represented by the th in think occurs both in Spanish and English. In English, however, this sound is a distinctive unit and contrasts with other sounds in English such as its voiced counter part in the. In many Spanish dialects, on the other hand, the voiceless "th" tends to occur only in school. In production, the Spanish speakers tend to substitute /s/, and thus they tend to say sink instead of think and sin instead of thin.

The initial consonants in <u>then</u> and <u>den</u>

As we noted earlier, the voiced "th" sound in Spanish is a variation of the /d/ sound, while in English they are distinctive sound units. Spanish /d/, as Spanish /t/, is produced with the tongue touching the back of the upper teeth, as contrasted with English /d/, which is produced with the tongue touching back further on the tooth ridge. Production is a problem for Spanish speakers in that they tend to substitute their /d/ for English voiced "th" in initial positions and their voiced "th" for English /d/ where it occurs between vowels.

The initial consonants in <u>sink</u> and <u>zinc</u>

English /z/ is a problem for Spanish speakers because they have a tendency to produce the voiceless /s/ rather than the voiced /z/, and voicing is an important signalling feature between these sounds in words such as <u>sink</u> and <u>zinc</u>. After vowels, Spanish speakers often fail to give the conditioned vowel length occurring with voiced consonants in this position, and English speakers sometimes react to the Spanish speaker's word news as if it were <u>noose</u> and <u>lose</u> as if it were <u>loose</u>.

The initial consonants in shoes and choose

The English sound represented by sh as in shoes does not occur in Spanish (except perhaps when one is imitating a person who has stayed too late at a drinking party), while the "sh" sound and the "ch" sound must be sharply differentiated when speaking English. The Spanish speaker has a tendency to pronounce his own Spanish "ch" rather than English "ch", and the native speaker of English does not know whether the Spanish speaker is saying choose or shoes, chip or ship, or chin or shin. This may be in part due to simple confusion as to which sound goes with which word, but it is also undoubtedly related to the quality of Spanish "ch", which is articulated in a somewhat different manner than English "ch".

The sibilant conconants in usually and shoe

The English sound represented by s in usually, like the English sound represented by sh in shoe, does not exist as a separate, contrastive sound in Spanish. Once the students have developed a fair degree of control over the "sh" sound, they may still have difficulty in pronouncing the voiced counterpart as in usually because of the problem of voicing.

The initial consonants in choke and joke

The "j" sound as we know it in English joke does not exist as a contrastive sound in Spanish. Spanish speakers sometimes fail to hear and produce the voiceing contrast necessary in order to distinguish these two sounds as used by English speakers. Spanish speakers may pronounce, for example both choke and joke as choke.

The initial consonants in Yale and jail

As noted above, the English "j" sound as in joke does not occur in Spanish on a phonemic level. As a variant of Spanish /y/, the "j" sound may occur in words such as yo. The fact remains, however, that in English these sounds as in yoke and joke are two distinct sound units which are in contrast, and the Spanish speaker must learn to separate the two sounds. Otherwise, the native speaker of English will not know whether the Spanish speaker is saying mayor or major, use or juice, or yellow or jello.

The initial consonants in boat and vote

"b"-like and "v"-like sounds exist in Spanish, but they do not contrast with each other. Where one

occurs, the other does not normally occur. Here again we have to keep clearly separated the matters of spellings and sounds. While Spanish bote and vote are commonly pronounced alike in unaffected speech outside of the classroom, English boat and vote must be consistently distinguished. In English they are contrastive units. A Spanish speaker may pronounce both boat and vote as boat, and he may pronounce the words cupboard and covered as covered.

Voicing contrasts: A number of the contrasts we have thus far taken up have involved the feature of voicing. As a contrastive feature, voicing is much more common in English than it is in Spanish, and therefore it is sometimes desirable to take up the feature for practice in multiple sound contrasts. Following are listed examples of the voiceless-voiced contrasts occurring in English:

pat and bat

time and dime

curl and girl

fine and vine

ether and either

sink and zinc

Aleutian and allusion

choke and joke

One other matter of contrast which is important to take up when dealing with the consonant sounds is the contrast involved in the nasals.

The final consonants in sum, sun, and sung

> Spanish /m/ occurs essentially in initial and medial positions, while English /m/ occurs finally as well. In spelling, Spanish has the final letter m in such a word as album, but the pronunciation of the final sound in such a word is often "ng" as in sung. The real problem that is involved in the distribution of Spanish /m/ is that, in English, Spanish speakers often hear and produce final English /m/ as /n/ or "ng". Spanish speakers, then, may have difficulty in distinguishing between sets of words such as whim, win, wing, simmer, sinner, singer, and drive'em (drive them), drive-in (Movie) and driving.

The consonant sounds /p/, /t/, /k/

> The English /p/, /t/, and /k/ sounds cause little or no difficulty on the recognition level. When a Spanish speaker pronounces English /p/, the English speaker may interpret it as /b/ if the sound is not properly aspirated in words such as pin, pat, and pan. This is true to some extent for English /t/ and /k/, though perhaps not to the same extent

> because of less aspiration with /t/ and /k/. English /p/ and /k/ are articulated at approximately the same points in the mouth as Spanish /p/ and /k/, while with English /t/ the tongue touches the upper tooth ridge rather than the back of the upper teeth as does Spanish /t/.

In addition to problems of hearing and producing individual sounds in English which may be produced differently or may not occur in Spanish at all, we have still another problem related to sounds which is also important. This problem involves the sequences in which the consonant sounds occur. These sequences of sounds, called consonant clusters, are a prime source of difficulty for the Spanish speaker using English because of the wide variety of combinations possible in English as compared with the relatively few combinations possible in Spanish. The following list of clusters will usually present special problems.

/sp-/	spin	/fy-/	few
/st-/	stay	/hy-/	huge
/sk-/	sky	/my-/	mute
/sf-/	sphere	/sl-/	slow
/sm-/	small	/spy-/	spew
/sn-/	snow	/sky-/	skew
/θw-/	thwart	/skw-/	squall
/θr-/	three	/spr-/	spring
/šr-/	shrink	/str-/	string
/py-/	pure	/skr-/	scratch
/ky-/	cure	/spl-/	split

The fact that English has more than twice as many initial consonant clusters as Spanish is reason to suspect that we can anticipate cluster difficulty with Spanish speakers as they learn English. When we look at clusters in final position in the two languages, we can be sure there is a problem. As we turn to Spanish, we find that we have none at all, except those which occur in borrowed words. This means that the total body of final consonant clusters is a potential problem for the Spanish speaker in his pronunciation development. Not only does Spanish lack consonant clusters in final position, but it has only a few consonants that end words even as single consonants. These are /n/, /h/, /s/, /r/, /l/, and /d/, as in hablan, reloj, hablas, hablar, platanal, and ciudad. There are in addition to these a few borrowed words such as ballet, club, and conac which lengthen the list somewhat. We have reason to expect pronunciation difficulties at lengthen the list somewhat. We have reason to expect pronunciation difficulties at least in the initial stages with final single consonants as in:

cap	pick	breath
cab	pig	breathe
church	knife	brush
judge	leave	rouge
some	this	
	these	

As our students begin to acquire more vocabulary and as they learn to add various suffixes, we can expect many of the following clusters to present problems:

Sample clusters produced within simple forms

help	hard	length
belt	curve	width
milk	arm	depth
wasp	barn	next
test	girl	glimpse
ask	act	sixth
tax	left	burnt
heart	sand	thirst
scarf	once	world
barb	camp	twelfth

Sample clusters produced by adding suffixes

stopped	robbed	beds
laughed	lived	seems
watched	seemed	cleans
washed	filled	things
stops	caused	lives
helped	works	carved
camped	asks	turned
clasped	ants	changed
worked	tests	holds
asked	acts	turns

PART FIVE

SUPRASEGMENTALS:

STRESS, PITCH, PAUSE

In addition to having problems with the individual sounds and combinations of sounds, the Spanish-speaking child learning English will often have trouble with English stress, pitch, and pause. When we use the expression a blǎck bŏard, with a heavy stress on both black and board, and with a slight pause between the words, we are referring to something that is a board and that is black. When we use the expression a blǎckboard, with a heavy stress on black only, what we're referring to may not be a board at all and it may not be black. Quite possibly it is green.

146. Yes ___ No ___ Is a hŏt dŏg a dog?

147. Yes ___ No ___ Is a hŏt dog a dog?

148. Yes ___ No ___ Is a yĕllow jacket an article of clothing?

149. Yes ___ No ___ Is a yĕllow jăcket an article of clothing?

150. Yes ___ No ___ Can a blăck bĕrry be green?

151. Yes ___ No ___ Can a blăckberry be green?

152. Yes ___ No ___ Is a lĭght hŏusekeeper the same as a lĭghthouse keeper?

In both Spanish and English, a difference in stress can help to signal a difference in meaning:

La cantará esta noche.	(She will sing it tonight.)
La cantara esta noche.	(She may sing it tonight.)
La cántara está aquí.	(The jug is here.)

The objects are missing.	(objects - noun)
She objects to the proposal.	(objects - verb)

In item 153-158, circle noun or verb to indicate the use of the underlined words.

153.	They permit camping along the river.	noun	verb
154.	Their permit allowed them to camp.	noun	verb
155.	The contents of the note were not known.	noun	verb
156.	She contents herself with her hobbies.	noun	verb
157.	They suspect that all is not well.	noun	verb
158.	Their suspect escaped through a wall.	noun	verb

In items 159-170, circle the words in each horizontal set that have the same stress pattern.

159.	cashier	doctor	dessert
160.	nylon	baseball	subtract
161.	social	sincere	police
162.	July	decide	support
163.	celebrate	capital	comprehend
164.	medicine	important	seventy
165.	seventeen	indicate	character
166.	description	committee	excellent
167.	recognize	represent	organize
168.	television	responsible	participate
169.	conversation	agriculture	artificial
170.	community	comparison	necessary

Changes in pitch pattern often help to signal a difference in meaning. For items 171-174 circle the question which would be answered by the statement if read following the intonation lines.

171. I wrote some letters yesterday morning.

Who? Did what? How many? When?

172. I wrote some letters yesterday morning.

Who? Did what? How many? When?

173. I wrote some letters yesterday morning.

Who? Did what? How many? When?

174. I wrote some letters yesterday morning.

Who? Did what? How many? When?

For items 175-179 circle the response which best corresponds to the numbered sentence.

175. He's going to the store.
   a. I already knew it.
   b. Yes, he is.

176. He's going to the store.
   a. I already knew it.
   b. Yes, he is.

177. Do you want tea or coffee.
   a. Yes, I do.
   b. Coffee.

178. Do you want tea or coffee
   a. Yes, I do.
   b. Coffee.

179. Is it a boy or a girl.
   a. Yes, it is.
   b. It's a boy.

In the phrases and sentences below, the meaning can be changed by changing the pauses, as for example, I scream can be changed to ice cream. Rewrite each phrase or sentence so as to show a change in meaning signaled by a change in pause.

180. It swings. _____

181. They needed rain. _____

182. A nice man. _____

183. See Mabel. _____

184. We ceased aching. _____

185. What's in a name? _____

186. We'll own a boat. _____

187. It's sod you see. _____

188. Dirty laundry basket. _____

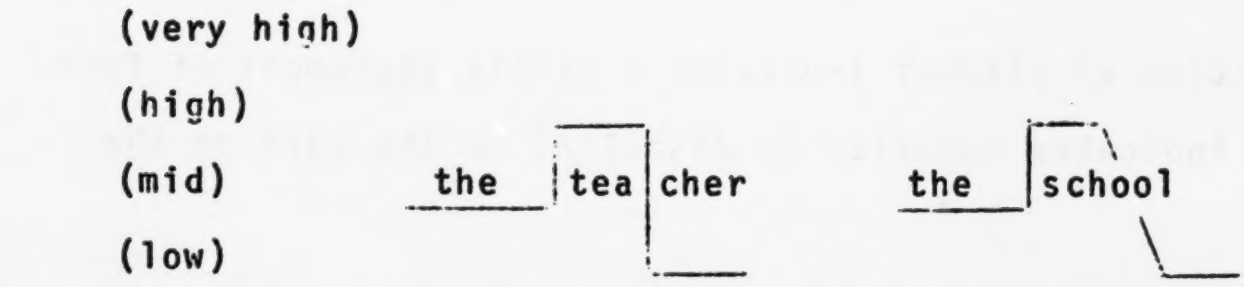
189. It's praise. _____

190. Careless about things. _____

191. Slow! Men working! _____

Thus far we have used the terms phoneme and phonemic in reference to the sound units in a language. There are, however, other contrastive features of the sound system which are sometimes phonemes, or phonemic. In languages such as English and Spanish, in which the stress pattern may vary from word to word, we react differently to given sound sequences according to how the syllables are stressed. In Spanish, for example, we distinguish between cántara, cantara, and cantará. In a similar fashion in English, we know that óbject is one word and objéct is another. This difference in stress pattern, accompanied by vowel changes, is one of the features by which we distinguish between nouns and verbs in English. We have a similar pattern of contrast between adjectives and verbs, for example in words such as séparate and separàte. We may notice that in the case of óbject and objéct the strongest stress falls on a different syllable, while in the case of séparate and séparàte, the strongest stress is the same but a weaker stress is given to the last syllable of the verb. Differences such as these make it clear that stress is a feature to concern us as we deal with the materials to be mastered.

In addition to the matter of loudness, or stress, we must also consider the way in which the voice rises and falls as we talk. These risings and fallings of the voice, or pitch changes, as they occur in English have been analyzed, and it has been found that there are four distinctive pitch levels.



These pitch levels are relative and should not be correlated with absolute pitch, as in music. Further, the pitch levels and range of particular individuals will vary according to sex and age.

The "very high" pitch level is commonly associated with surprise or strong emotion, and "high" pitch level with emphasis. The "mid" pitch level is commonly associated with the unstressed beginning of a word group or sentence. The "low" pitch level is generally associated with the end of matter-of-fact statements. Various combinations of these pitch levels tend to reflect specific attitudes as they are applied to given sound sequences, but they are not tied to specific grammatical structures. For example, the sentences

Are you go ing? and Are you going?

have two different meanings. In the first sentence, the "mid-high-low" intonation contour might be interpreted as being more matter of fact, while the second might be considered to be more polite. Similarly, in the sentences

You are go ing. and You are going.

the first combination of pitches indicates a simple statement of fact, while the second indicates surprise or disbelief on the part of the speaker.

Turning to the problems of the learner, there seems to be a general problem stemming from the tendency of Spanish intonation to rise higher than English intonation and to rise in situations where English intonation falls. A Spanish speaker, for example, who says

Are you go ing? instead of Are you go ing?

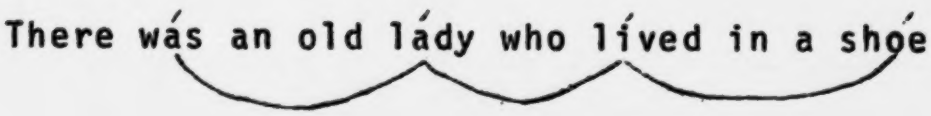
gives the impression that he is surprised or indignant, when, as a matter of fact, he is simply asking for information. The common notion that Spanish speakers always talk as if they were excited no doubt stems from this tendency to rise to a pitch level that is interpreted as "very high" pitch level, which is used sparingly by most native speakers of English.

Another feature of the sound system closely related to intonation and stress is pause, or as it is sometimes called, juncture. Commonly used examples of one type of juncture are night rate,with the pause between the /t/ and the /r/, and nitrate,with the pause before the /t/. Another such pair is ice cream and I scream. This latter pair is the basis for the childhood conundrum

I scream. You scream. We all scream for ice cream.

As we say this sentence rapidly, we tend to confuse our placement of juncture, and as a result we have ambiguity.

The last element we shall deal with in our consideration of the English sound system is rhythm, and we shall limit ourselves to a simple statement of the characteristics of rhythm in Spanish and in English. Spanish rhythm is what is called syllable-timed rhythm, which means that the time given to each syllable is relatively uniform. In such a rhythm the time between the syllables with primary stress is determined by the number of syllables. In contrast with Spanish syllable-timed rhythm, English has what is called stress-timed rhythm. In English rhythm, the time between syllables with primary stress tends to be relatively uniform, even though we increase or decrease the number of syllables. The sentences below as marked for stress suggest the basic difference between English and Spanish rhythm



Although rhythm as a feature of the language is on a level different from that of phonemic units of stress, pitch, and juncture which we have been considering, it is, nonetheless, a characteristic of English which, if not produced in the English speaker's manner, will combine with other types of interference from Spanish and leave the non-native speaker of English with an accent. And accents attract attention to the language itself rather than to the message being communicated.

PART SIX

THE ORDER

AND FORMS OF WORDS

A Spanish-speaking child learning English frequently has difficulty with English pronouns. These problems fall into three categories: (1) omitting the pronoun completely, (2) using a pronoun different from that used by standard English speakers, and (3) using a word order different from that used by standard English speakers. Sometimes more than one problem is present.

192. _____, _____

I have a brother. She is a baby.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

193. _____, _____

What is this? Is a book.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

194. _____, _____

Where is your pencil? It lent to Juan.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

195. _____, _____

What day is today? Is Monday.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

196. _____, _____

Where is María? Here is he.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

197. _____, _____

Did María and Juan arrive? Yes. Is him now.

a. omitted
b. form
c. order

A Spanish-speaking child learning English frequently has difficulty with the English negatives no and not. These problems fall into three categories: (1) using no for not or not for no, (2) using the negative in a position different from its use by native English speakers, and (3) using a double negative. Sometimes more than one problem is present.

198. Bill not is running.
a. double
b. form
c. order

199. Bill no is here.
a. double
b. form
c. order

200. No is here Bill?
a. double
b. form
c. order

201. No have Bill no pencils?
a. double
b. form
c. order

202. Bill not have no pencils.
a. double
b. form
c. order

203. No coming Bill to school today?
a. double
b. form
c. order

204. Bill is no coming to school no more?
a. double
b. form
c. order

A Spanish-speaking child learning English frequently has difficulty with modifiers of nouns. Study the pairs of sentences below and circle the best answer to complete the numbered items.

La vaca es grande.
The cow is big.

Las vacas son grandes.
The cows are big.

205. In sentences such as those above, we may anticipate that the pupils will _____.

a. put the English adjective in the wrong position.
b. add plural endings where English does not use them.
c. use both the wrong order and the wrong form of adjectives.

¿Es grande la vaca?
Is the cow big?

¿Son grandes las vacas?
Are the cows big?

206. In sentences such as those above, we may anticipate that the pupils will _____.

a. put the English adjective in the wrong position.
b. add plural endings where English does not use the.
c. use both the wrong order and the wrong form of adjectives.

La tapa de la caja esta abierta.
The top of the box is open.

El perro de la vecina fue a la puerta de atras.
The neighbor's dog went to the back door.

207. In sentences such as those above, we may anticipate that the pupils will use "of phrases" as noun modifiers:

a. referring to people and things.
b. referring to things only.
c. referring to people only.

In Spanish, a pen is called a pluma and a fountain is called a fuente. A fountain pen is called a pluma fuente. Based on this pattern of modification, we might expect a Spanish-speaking child to think that

208. chocolate milk is a
a. liquid
b. solid

209. a bus station is a
a. bus
b. station

A Spanish-speaking student learning English frequently has difficulty with the comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs. Study the pairs of sentences below and circle the best answer to complete the numbered items.

Jane es más alta que sus hermanas.
Jane is taller than her sisters.

Jane es más hermosa que sus hermanas.
Jane is more beautiful than her sisters.

210. In sentences such as those above, we may anticipate that the students will have grammatical difficulty:

a. with expressions such as more interesting.
b. with expressions such as older.
c. with expressions such as more exciting.
d. with expressions such as younger.

Jane es la más alta de su familia.
Jane is the tallest of her family.

Jane es la más aplicada de su familia.
Jane is the most studious of her family.

211. In sentences such as those above, we may anticipate that the students will have grammatical difficulty:

a. with expressions such as the cleverest.
b. with expressions such as the most perceptive.
c. with expressions such as the most careful.
d. with expressions such as the smartest.

In each of the following sets, which adjective would be likely to cause Spanish-speaking students the greatest problem when they use it in comparisons.

212. a. similar
b. soft
c. acrid

213. a. sweet
b. bitter
c. diligent

214. a. enriching
b. late
c. punctual

215. a. good
b. happy
c. careful

216. a. small
b. bad
c. important

217. a. less
b. foolish
c. rich

Each sentence below deals with a typical language problem for the Spanish-speaking child learning English. Identify the problem area focused on in each set.

218. Allen dances in circles.
The boy plays alone.
Sue doesn't watch T.V. on Friday night.

a. third person -s
b. plurals
c. auxiliary verbs

219. Many answers were given.
The silver dimes became rare.
My shoes are not for animals.

a. past and perfect tenses
b. plurals
c. third person -s

220. The referees had started the race.
Wilson explained its meaning to the group.
You joined the team in May.

a. past and perfect tenses
b. plurals
c. auxiliaries

221. The trees are leaning against the house.
Yes, I did fix the car.
He will fly Wednesday night.

a. plurals
b. auxiliaries
c. past and perfect tenses

222. He won the three prizes.
John did go to the movie.
I worked all night.

a. plurals
b. auxiliaries
c. past and perfect tenses

223. Phil didn't break his arm.
The rabbit will jump over the fence.
We are going to the games.

a. plurals
b. auxiliaries
c. past and perfect tenses

ORAL LANGUAGE RATING — SPANISH INTERFERENCE

SCHOOL _____ DATE _____

NAME _____ GRADE _____ TEACHER _____

	5 NEVER	4 ALMOST NEVER	3 SOMETIME	2 USUALLY	1 ALMOST ALWAYS	0 ALWAYS
1. PRONUNCIATION (SOUNDS): Distinguishes between vowel sounds such as sheep-ship, cut-cat, cut-cot, pool-pull, and between consonant sounds such as sink-zinc, vote-boat, sink-think, yellow-jello, cheap-jeep.						
2. PRONUNCIATION (CLUSTERS): Pronounces initial consonant clusters as in school, speak, study, and final consonant clusters as in land, fast, old, box, act, desk, pulled, touched.						
3. PRONUNCIATION (SUPRASEGMENTALS): Pronounces sentences with appropriate rhythm, stress, pause, and pitch.						
4. PRONOUNS: Uses appropriate pronoun forms in subject position (I, he, she, etc.), in object position (me, him, her, etc.) and possessives (my, mine; her, hers; etc.).						
5. NEGATIVE: Uses not to express the negative after forms of BE (Bill is not here.) and between auxiliary and verb in other sequences (Bill was not talking, Bill did not talk.); uses singular rather than double negative.						
6. NOUN MODIFIER: Uses adjectives appropriately, as in the big dog as opposed to the dog big and Is the dog big? as opposed to Is big the dog?.						
7. COMPARISON: Uses the correct form of comparison such as bigger, biggest, more beautiful, most beautiful, rather than more bigger, beautifuller.						
8. PRESENT TENSE: Uses the appropriate present forms of regular verbs, with subject-verb agreement when he or she is used as subject, as in He walks, rather than He walk.						
9. PLURALS: Distinguishes between singular and plural in regular forms such as dog-dogs, boot-boots, horse-horses, and in irregular forms such as foot-feet, knife-knives.						
10. PAST AND PERFECT TENSES: Uses the past forms of regular verbs as in walk-walked, glue-glued, land-landed, and of irregular forms as in go-went-gone, dig-dug, cut-cut.						
11. USES OF BE: Uses appropriate forms of BE as an auxiliary and as a verb.						
12. USES OF DO: Uses appropriate forms of DO in questions, answers, and in negative statements.						
13. FUTURE TENSE: Uses the appropriate future forms of regular verbs as in run-will run.						
14. POSSESSIVE: Uses appropriate possessive forms as in John's wagon.						